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Desirable Background for Community-College Teachers

EDITORIAL

WITH so many problems facing education, it is easy to place the emphasis in the wrong area. The most urgent need of junior colleges today is qualified teaching personnel. We should be deeply concerned about the specialized training needed to succeed in the community-college field. Many graduate schools are conducting extended research, and the American Association of Junior Colleges has projects under way in various communities across the nation. The problem of administrators is to find the type of instructor who possesses the philosophy and the talents needed at the junior-college level.

Most present instructors have been recruited from one of three sources. The majority have advanced from the senior high school level. Others have had experiences in the traditional four-year college.

The writer of this editorial, J. F. MARVIN BUECHEL, is president of the Everett Junior College, Washington, and a member of the Editorial Board of the Junior College Journal.

Some have been recruited from private professional or industrial areas. None of these groups has been properly prepared for junior-college teaching, but many recruits from these sources have developed into ideal instructors through participation in workshops, in-service training programs, and formal graduate study.

Our experience with persons who have come from these sources has indicated that those who have had practical experience in the industrial or professional field develop into better instructors. The individual who has faced the everyday problems in the business world has acquired a strong taste for a community attitude. The individual who has been forced to make decisions, to direct activities, or to meet the public has undoubtedly realized the value of practical education.

Experiences acquired by individuals in the business and professional fields should be carefully analyzed so that student teachers may have the opportunity of obtaining similar training. Perhaps the inauguration of internship for cadet

teachers may provide the needed experience. It will not be enough to provide practice only in the classroom. Every junior-college teacher should have some experiences of a practical nature. For example, an accounting instructor would have a better understanding of his teaching field if he could serve as an accountant in a business.

The instructors who have entered junior-college teaching from the business and professional level usually lack the individual-guidance and group-counseling methods. In most cases these weaknesses are rectifiable by an in-service training program. The present curriculum for teacher training has developed many persons with sound skills in this area. Because of the unique student-teacher relationships in junior college, it is essential that a thorough training in guidance, tests and measurements, and counseling be incorporated. It is particularly important that junior-college teachers have the ability to analyze occupational conditions in the community and advise students on the preparation and skills essential to success in related areas.

If we are to realize the objectives listed in the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, what are the qualifications for instructors at the community-college level? The largest number of instructors needed is in the field of technical-vocational training—

instructors with experiences in business, industry, public services, and professions. Many are needed in the general-education field with experiences in social science, communication skills, and liberal arts. All must be sufficiently grounded in their teaching field to distribute sound, basic training to technical-vocational students, as well as undergraduate students who will continue to the baccalaureate degree. The most important competency will be a broad general background with sufficient depth of scholarship training to visualize the relationships of general education to specific occupational skills. The ability to lead in some extracurriculum activity will provide balance to the instructors' contact with students.

The field of adult education offers an important challenge. Because of the close relations of the community college with the community, it is only logical that this institution take the lead. The instructors must be able to build confidence and prestige with the adult student. The community attitude and practical approach based on sound theoretical training will be essential to a successfully taught adult program. These people must be aware of the balance of general and technical education, with the aim of contributing to the American way of life.

J. F. MARVIN BUECHEL

Building a Functional Program for a Junior College

BASIL H. PETERSON

AND

JAMES W. THORNTON, JR.

IT is an unusual opportunity and a real challenge to establish and build a new junior college. Such was the responsibility which faced the Board of Trustees and the administrative staff of Orange Coast College at Costa Mesa, California. Because they wanted a program of instruction suited to the needs of the district, the Board of Trustees decided not to attempt to establish classes during the first year of the college's existence. Instead, they employed an administrative staff, which was asked to spend a full year in studying the community to determine the specific post-high-school needs of the district, developing an educational plan to meet those needs, and assembling staff and equipment for the program.

BASIL H. PETERSON is the president, and JAMES W. THORNTON, JR., the vice-president of the newly organized Orange Coast College at Costa Mesa, California.

Purposes

The first task was to determine the major areas of student needs. In other words, it was necessary to formulate the objectives or purposes of the college. A study of the community and the students of the district led to adoption of the following six objectives:

OCCUPATIONAL COMPETENCE.—To qualify young men and women in a period of two years or less to enter a vocational field and successfully to pursue an occupation.

CIVIC COMPETENCE.—To qualify students to function effectively as members of a family, a community, a state, a nation, and a world.

PERSONAL EFFICIENCY.—To assist students, through a program of guidance and instruction, to "find themselves"—to discover aptitudes, to choose a life work, to secure training in line with their aptitudes.

UNIVERSITY TRANSFER.—To enable students desiring four years of college training to complete lower-division requirements and to transfer to a university or senior college, prepared to continue advanced education without loss of time.

REMOVAL OF MATRICULATION DEFICIENCIES.—To enable students who are unable to meet college-entrance requirements because of deficiencies in their high-school work to remove the deficiencies and thus to gain entrance to upper-division work.

LIFELONG TRAINING.—To provide educational opportunities to meet needs of adults of the region—a program of instructional, vocational-upgrading, and cultural activities.

Determination of Needs

The major problem was, therefore, resolved into the formulation of an educational program which would lead to achieving the objectives of the college. Solving this problem included five steps.

1. A survey was made to determine the educational and occupational needs of the post-high-school youth of the district.¹ Information was obtained from several sources. Seven hundred and ninety-eight students enrolled in the Junior and Senior years of the local high schools and 226 graduates of the preceding two years from the same high schools were asked to fill out appropriate survey sheets. In addition, business and industrial firms were interviewed by representatives of the college.

2. A representative community committee was called together to

¹ The survey actually developed into a county-wide project with the co-operation of the office of the county superintendent of schools and the junior colleges at Fullerton and Santa Ana.

consider with the Board of Trustees and the college administrators the facts of the "educational and occupational needs survey" and to advise with officials of the college regarding the educational program. Approximately one hundred citizens from the district were invited to serve as members of this committee. Representatives were included from all types of business, industry, and agriculture; the high schools; the service clubs; the chambers of commerce; the churches; the parent-teachers' associations; and other civic groups.

After the facts of the survey were presented to the committee, types of educational training needed in the area were proposed. The meeting was thrown open to discussion, which brought forth many interesting reactions, mainly in support of the junior college and the program proposed by administrative officers. Later, each member of the committee was interviewed in relation to the college offering in the field of his major interest. The committee served as a definite public-relations asset and insured community backing and understanding. It also provided the administration with a "sounding board" and provided the prestige needed to develop and institute a program of vocational education.

3. A short time after the meeting with representatives of the

community, the Board of Trustees met and officially approved the framework of the educational program.

4. The next step was the appointment of an advisory committee for each specific vocational-terminal training program. The committees were selected to include representatives from the vocational fields for which the training was designed. College administrators called each committee together and outlined the proposals on the nature and the contents of the instruction to be offered in the program under consideration. The committee was asked for detailed advice regarding the skills, knowledge, and attitudes essential to the occupational field for which the program was being formulated. In many instances several meetings were required in order to give ample consideration to all aspects of the program. Each committee also proved of value in advising on the selection and procurement of instructional supplies and equipment.

5. The final step in the development of the program will occur after instructors in the various fields have been selected and report for duty. It will be the responsibility of these instructors to study the community, their students, the objectives of the students, and the vocational opportunities and requirements of the area. After giv-

ing consideration to these matters, the instructors in each vocational field will meet with their advisory committee to consider and discuss details of the course of study to be offered. In this way an instructional program geared to meeting the needs of the students and the community will evolve gradually and practically.

Survey Facts

The student and graduate survey presented a long list of occupations, and the respondents were asked to check those in which they had a real interest and those in which they felt they could succeed. Interpretation of the responses in terms of actual course offerings is difficult, since each student was asked to check several responses. The average number of job fields checked was four. The relative frequency of interest helps in determining emphasis in the various fields; and dividing the total number of checks for any one interest by four, will provide an estimate of the registration to be expected from 1,000 (actually 1,024) students. Table 1 presents data on the estimated registrations obtained in this way.

Even though changes in student goals, and the nature of the questionnaire itself, make absolutely accurate predictions impossible, it is evident that about two-thirds of

the students will desire terminal courses, and about one-third, college transfer courses; and that vocational programs will be demanded in certain broad fields of employment.

In contacts with business and industry, the employers were asked two main questions: their opinion

that the population will more than double in each ten-year period for the next thirty years.

2. Employers are interested in efforts to supply beginning workers with specific pre-employment training.

3. Many employers are interested in the possibility of short-

TABLE 1.—INTEREST SHOWS (PER 1,000 STUDENTS) IN OCCUPATIONAL FIELDS AND PROBABLE REGISTRATION (PER 1,000 STUDENTS) IN JUNIOR-COLLEGE COURSES

Job Field	Total Interest	Probable Registration
Business	733	183
Secretarial, clerical	252	63
Bookkeeping, accounting	81	20
Business management, sales	400	100
Mechanical trades	614	154
Metal crafts and allied skills	115	29
Engine mechanics	444	111
Electrical technician	55	14
Semiprofessional scientific fields	416	105
Drafting	118	30
Technicians	244	61
Dental assistant	54	14
Art fields (commercial, ceramics)	332	83
Construction fields (home and boat)	212	53
Homemaking	140	35
Radio and dramatics	113	28
Agriculture	75	19
Beauty operator	67	17
Total terminal courses	675	
College transfer courses	377	

of the employment trends in their field in the region and their ideas of training needs for beginning and employed workers in their fields. As a result of the interviews, the following conclusions became apparent:

1. The Orange Coast area faces an immediate and unprecedented population growth. The outlook is

term training courses for employees, and even for themselves, to meet specific needs for skills, for promotion, or for general background in the job field.

4. Fields in which specific pre-employment training programs are needed include all business occupations, metal crafts, engine mechanics, commercial art, ceramics, build-

ing trades, drafting, agriculture, homemaking, petroleum technology, and cosmetology.

A Functional Program

In view of the facts of the survey, the next task was that of establishing an educational framework geared to meeting the needs of the students. How could the objectives of the college be realized? The objectives and the educational plans directed toward achieving each are shown in the following outline.

I. Occupational Competence

Complete two-year programs will be offered in the following occupational fields:

1. Small business operation (management of small business, retailing, advertising, merchandising, selling)
2. Bookkeeping and accounting
3. Secretarial work
4. Engine mechanics (gasoline, butane, Diesel engines)
5. Commercial art (advertising, design, fashion illustration)
6. Ceramics
7. Building trades and construction (home-building, wood-craft, cabinet-making, boat-building, carpentry, plumbing, painting)
8. Metal crafts (machine manufacturing, sheet-metal manufacturing, welding, forging)
9. Homemaking
10. Architectural drafting
11. General vocational agricult-

ture (emphasis on field crops and poultry husbandry)

12. Petroleum technology

II. Civic Competence

1. At least one course in the field of American political ideals and one in American history will be required for graduation.
2. A course in marriage and the family will be offered.
3. A course in industrial organization and management will be offered and required of most vocational majors.

III. Personal Efficiency

1. Trained counseling staff will be employed.
2. All students will be required to complete counseling examinations.
3. During the first semester all students will be required to complete course in introductory psychology (primarily a group guidance course).
4. Six units of work in written and oral English will be required for graduation.
5. Course in personal hygiene will be required for graduation.
6. All students will be required to enrol for physical education each semester.

IV. University Transfer and Removal of Deficiencies

1. Basic lower-division courses in liberal arts, engineering, scientific, business, and pre-professional fields (law, medicine, dentistry, nursing, teaching, optometry) will be offered.
2. All courses necessary for re-

moving matriculation deficiencies will be given.

V. Adult Education

1. Regular day program will include instruction of interest to adults.
2. Evening programs of two high schools will be supplemented where need exists.
3. Activities of cultural nature will be sponsored.
4. Short-term vocational courses (ten hours of instruction) in specific fields, such as realty, banking, trades, and business will be sponsored.

Continuous Evaluation

The framework shown above presents the pattern of a program of education which will be functional. It embodies the *general* and the *vocational* education essential to meet the post-high-school needs of the students of the Orange Coast Junior College District. However, the process of building an educational program cannot be static. Curriculum building is a never-ending process; the results should be subject to continuous evaluation.

Literature in Teaching Psychology

VERA Z. WASHBURN E

IN THE teaching of psychology, some teachers use literature to assist in the exploration of the subject-matter field, and others use it for ameliorative or therapeutic purposes. Out of interest in the therapeutic value of the use of literature, over a period of several years I asked students who were enrolled in courses in adolescent psychology to state whether in their reading experience any novel, story, or play (1) had assisted them in dealing with a personal difficulty, (2) had suggested an answer to a perplexing question, or (3) had had any other impact on their thinking and feeling. The answers indicated that no predictions could be made with regard to the results of the use of any particular book, novel, or play. For example, the same book presumably led to a solution of a personal problem in the case of one individual but gave no such results for other individuals with similar problems. The answers did show that reading had a vitalizing influence on the learning experience in

psychology. As a consequence of this finding and because of the apparent recognition by many teachers of the relationship between literature and learning in psychology, I began to use literature in my teaching.

Place of Literature in Teaching Psychology

I use literature neither for the purpose of exploring the field of psychology nor for ameliorative purposes. I feel that the place to explore psychology is in the literature of psychology itself because of the greater probability that the student's orientation toward the field will be scientific; and I have become cautious about the use of literature for therapeutic or ameliorative purposes because of the probability of undesirable results.

My reluctance to use literature therapeutically is based on the fact that no two adjustment problems are identical. Each individual has his own problems, and each problem is unique because the inner environment of a person is different from that of any other person, the outer environment in which he functions is different from that of

VERA Z. WASHBURN E is an instructor in psychology at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.

any other person, and the means at his disposal for solving his problem are also different.

Moreover, it is not having the answer to a problem that is conducive to learning; it is in the process of discovering the answer that learning takes place. Through being supplied the answer, the student may be deprived of the incentive to solve his problem; it is like reading the end of a detective story. Similarly, through being supplied the answer, the student may be exposed to the danger of clutching at any substitute solution and thereby be prevented from ever solving his problem.

Books can be used therapeutically if they frame the problem, so to speak, if they put it into large perspective for the student, so that he can see it. But reading for this purpose must be followed by counseling or teaching so that the reading is not allowed to become the only step which the student takes toward solving the problem. The danger here is that the student, far from learning about his problem, may escape from it into reading.

My use of literature, then, is to vivify the subject of psychology through assisting students to perceive the ways in which psychological principles are demonstrated and revealed in what they read; the dry bones, the psychological facts encountered in their formal study, are given flesh. Used in this way, literature serves as an excellent aid to

one of the major aims in the teaching of psychology: that of helping students to apply psychological knowledge to the understanding of their own behavior and the behavior of others.

Another objective is to cope with the fact that students are conditioned to compartmentalize subject matter. For them biology never leaves the classroom, chemistry remains in the laboratory, mathematics stays on the blackboard, and literature is thought of nowhere other than in "lit" classes. Literature may effectively assist students to break through these compartments, and they are afforded, in addition, the satisfaction of applying their knowledge in another field. And it is not a one-way traffic; for they bring their literary experience to enlarge their learning in psychology. In this way another important objective is promoted: that of assisting students to integrate their learning in psychology with their learning elsewhere.

Ways of Using Literature

Some teachers are reluctant to use literature as assignments, fearing that students will read literature instead of psychology. No such danger will be encountered if the students are required to read specific assignments in the psychological textbooks and journals and are held accountable for this reading in class discussions, on tests, and in application of the data to

their reading in literature. Specifically, a distinction is made in these assignments. Readings in psychological textbooks and journals are basic requirements in the course; those in literature are regarded as supplementary to the basic reading.

In giving the assignments, the teacher must make it clear that what is wanted is *not* a reading diary. Students are strongly conditioned simply to tell the story and then to feel that they have sufficiently reported what they have understood of their reading. The problem for the teacher is to assist the students to apply their present thinking to their reading and critically to evaluate their thinking and their reading. The resistance to this kind of learning is enormous. I have discovered that it is necessary constantly and pointedly to direct the efforts of students toward applying their learning and evaluating their personal reactions to the piece by some such comments as:

The story is adequately told, but what do *you* think of it? What psychological principles do you feel it illustrates? How does it relate to the assignment in your textbook or to your class discussion?

How did your supplementary reading shed light on your understanding of psychological facts and principles?

What relationships have you noticed between the incidents encountered in this reading and your personal experiences, and what light has been thrown both ways?

Both the growth and the resistance of the students are illustrated by the girl who summarized as follows Virginia Woolf's "A New Dress":

A woman wanted to go to a party and made herself what she thought of as an unusual dress for the occasion. She realized after she got there that it was not as pretty as the other dresses, and she felt very bad about it.

A few weeks later this same student reported on Booth Tarkington's *Alice Adams* and evaluated the central character as "a spoiled girl." This was her notion of extending her thinking beyond simply summarizing the story. Toward the end of the semester the same student read "The Wife of a Hero" by Sally Benson and summarized the heroine's behavior as arising from "social pressure on the one hand and false values on the other, which prevented her from bringing her sweetheart home, and not being honest enough to tell him the truth." At this point in her thinking, my student decided that the girl was "not adjusting to her increasing maturity." In "A New Dress" this student had failed to see the implications of the feelings of inferiority and non-acceptance, but in her later report she recognized that the girl was sacrificing real values and was paying with maladjustment. I take it that this understanding results from functional application of the student's learning in psychology.

Useful Materials

Any significant literature should be useful for this purpose because manifestly its literary significance partly depends on its being psychologically sound. Obviously some literature deals more specifically with psychological factors and therefore has a more useful (or utilizable) illustrative value. Consequently the selections are drawn from three sources. First are the books which experience has shown to be appropriate and to supplement well particular units in the course in psychology. Examples of such books are *East River*, dealing with Nathan's difficulties in readjusting from illness to health; *Of Mice and Men*, picturing the difficulties that are encountered by deviates such as Lennie; "Paul's Case," the problem of achieving emotional maturity; *Wasteland*, *Strange Fruit*, and others, concerned with the psychological difficulties that are encountered by members of minority groups.

Next are the books and other materials which students voluntarily read or encounter and which consequently have the advantage of spontaneous interest, and to which students are encouraged to apply psychological knowledge. Comic strips, radio programs, pseudo-technical articles, and the like are at first timidly submitted by students. It comes as a surprise to them that such extra-curriculum

material has anything to do with their courses in psychology, and a very important objective is furthered—assisting students consciously to apply their insights and learning in psychology not only to their college work but to whatever they read and encounter.

Third, there are the books which students encounter in literature classes, which they would not ordinarily read, which they would not be expected to report on in other classes, and, more important, to which they would not usually be expected to apply learning from any other field. For instance, my students have applied their learning in psychology to such works as *Paradise Lost*, *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, *A Doll's House*, and, from the Bible, the stories of Samson, Joseph and his brethren, and the drama of Job.

Students are encouraged to use the literature that they study in other classes, but of course it is emphasized that the report must be different from that written for their literature courses. For example, while in literature classes students may devote their primary attention to matters of historical import, biographical significance, style, form, literary influence, sociological developments, and sheer literary enjoyment, for reports submitted in psychology courses their attention must be directed primarily to the psychological dynamics involved in the behavior of the characters and

to the interdependence of the environment and the characters—in short, to the psychological whys.

Co-operation with the Librarian

To achieve the objectives most effectively, I have found it necessary to co-ordinate the classroom teaching and assignments closely with the work of the librarian. Of particular assistance has been the librarian's knowledge of the purposes of the teaching project and assignment, her understanding of the criteria of selection of books, and her awareness of individual students' needs, interests, and reading abilities. In addition to assisting in these instructional matters, the librarian arranged a shelf of books which were selected for the special purpose of illuminating the work in psychology, kept a statistical account of their use, assisted in revising the reading list, and suggested additional books. To enable me to evaluate the reading assignments to some extent, the librarian relayed students' comments and reactions. For example, if a particular book which we both felt ought to be of value was uninteresting to the students, it was often possible to stimulate interest through frequent reference to the book in the classroom teaching or through deliberate preparation for its use, such as indicating its sharp insights into the causes of human behavior.¹

¹ A more complete description of the place of the library in teaching at Stephens College can be obtained from B. Lamar Johnson, Eloise

A Concluding Word

To conclude, literature serves to vitalize, to illustrate, to focus attention on, and to objectify data and principles encountered in the formal study of psychology. Literature does not replace the study of psychology; on the contrary, properly used, literature strengthens the compulsion for such study. An equally important teaching objective is also advanced—that of assisting students to integrate their learning in psychology with their experience in literature and, by extension, no doubt, with life.

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Junior-College Teacher Salaries: Policies and Practices

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

AND

LEONARD V. KOOS

DURING the late fall of 1947, the Research Office of the American Association of Junior Colleges at the University of Chicago circulated an inquiry form seeking information concerning two closely related aspects of the salary problem in junior colleges. The two areas of attention were (1) policies and practices in determining junior-college teachers' salaries and (2) the salaries being paid in 1947-48. This first article reports the findings of the investigation of policies and practices. Results of the inquiry into the actual salaries will be reported in a subsequent article.

At the outset it must be emphasized that this study is limited to salaries of classroom teachers. Decision to delimit the study in

this fashion was made for the reason that salaries of classroom teachers was the matter of original concern established by the members of the two committees initiating the study, the Committee on Administrative Problems and the Committee on Teacher Preparation of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Furthermore, to have attempted to study the salaries of administrative and sub-administrative personnel at the same time that classroom teacher salaries were being considered would have required a project much beyond the time available for the investigation.

Extent of the Returns

Inquiry forms were sent to all junior colleges listed in the "Junior College Directory, 1947," except those that were operating strictly as lower divisions of universities or as evening colleges attached to regular day junior colleges. It was decided to omit the lower divisions of universities on the assumption that these divisions are included

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA is assistant director of research for the American Association of Junior Colleges. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, is director of research for the American Association of Junior Colleges.

in the salary policies and schedules of the parent institutions. To have included them, therefore, would have necessitated embarking on a study of the whole question of salaries in higher institutions.

Some selection in favor of larger junior colleges is apparent in the return of the questionnaires. That is, administrators in small colleges, which presumably have less advantageous salary scales, appear to have been hesitant to return the inquiry form. Table 1 shows that approximately equal numbers of returns were received from small and from large local and district junior colleges. The "Junior College Directory, 1948," however, lists considerably more small local and district junior colleges than large ones of this classification. Other than the selection that has been indicated, the 296 institutions which returned the questionnaire appear to be representative of junior colleges in the nation. Returns were received from colleges located in all of the states in which junior colleges are found except two, New Mexico and South Dakota.

In accord with the practice established in previous studies reported by the Association's research office, the data from the questionnaire returns were tabulated according to type and size of junior college. The categories "small" and "large" were reached on the basis of enrolment of regular

students reported on the inquiry form. Junior colleges with fewer than three hundred students were considered "small"; those enrolling three hundred or more students were termed "large." This classification by size of enrolment is based on a distribution of all junior colleges of the country, which was made a year or so ago for other investigations being conducted for the Association. Colleges designated

TABLE 1.—CLASSIFICATION OF 296 JUNIOR COLLEGES RETURNING USABLE FORMS ON TEACHER-SALARY POLICY

Classification	Number	Per Cent
Local and district:		
Small	72	24.3
Large	75	25.3
All	147	49.7
State	21	7.1
Private:		
Small	79	26.7
Large	49	16.6
All	128	43.2
Total	296	100.0

either as local colleges or as district-controlled colleges in the "Junior College Directory, 1947" were categorized as "local and district," while "state" refers to the institutions operating under state auspices. The classification "private" was used to signify the junior colleges conducted under nonpublic control.

Practically half of the 296 returns were from local and district junior colleges. As seen from Table 1, these colleges are, in turn, nearly equally divided between small and

large institutions. Fewer than a tenth of the junior colleges participating in this study are state institutions. Owing to the small number of state junior colleges represented, they were not subdivided on the basis of size.

Use of Salary Schedules

One of the first objectives of this study was determination of the extent to which officially formulated

in only about a fourth of the private units.

Two considerations may provide an explanation of the observed divergence of practice between private and public junior colleges. First, it must be recalled that public junior colleges, more often than private institutions, are parts of school systems comprehending one or more lower levels of education. In such systems use of schedules

TABLE 2.—USE OF OFFICIALLY FORMULATED SCHEDULES TO DETERMINE
TEACHER SALARIES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

Classification	Number of Colleges	Colleges Using Schedules		Colleges Not Using Schedules	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Local and district:					
Small	72	39	54.2	33	45.8
Large	75	59	78.7	16	21.3
All	147	98	66.7	49	33.3
State	21	12	57.1	9	42.9
Private:					
Small	79	15	19.0	64	81.0
Large	49	16	32.7	33	67.3
All	128	31	24.2	97	75.8
Total	296	141	47.6	155	52.4

salary schedules are used to arrive at salaries paid. It was found, as shown in Table 2, that nearly half the total number of junior colleges represented make use of schedules. Divergence of practice in this regard, however, is seen when the percentages for private and public junior colleges are examined. Two-thirds of the local and district units use salary schedules, and similar practice is followed in more than half of the state institutions. On the other hand, schedules are used

to cover teaching personnel at all levels is a common practice. Second, public junior colleges, generally speaking, have larger teaching staffs and, thereby, have greater need for a formally established, consistent basis for determining salaries to be paid. This interpretation is supported by observation of the fact shown in Table 2 that, among the private institutions, greater proportions of the large institutions make use of schedules.

Regardless of size or type of con-

trol of the junior college, the schedules reported to be in use are up-to-date documents. Of the institutions using schedules, exactly two-thirds reported that the schedules had been last revised in 1947. An additional eighth reported 1946 as the latest date of revision. Fewer than 2 per cent of the institutions employing official schedules

using a formal salary schedule, approximately 96 per cent used that procedure to determine the salaries paid in 1947-48. It would appear, therefore, that the teacher shortage has not forced the abandonment of schedules in places where such guides are customarily used.

This investigation found that, when a schedule is not used to de-

TABLE 3.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES USING CERTAIN METHODS OF DETERMINING TEACHER SALARIES IN ABSENCE OF AN OFFICIAL SCHEDULE

Classification	Board and Teacher Confer	Committee of Board	Adminis- trator's Recom- mendation	Combine Method [†]	Other	No Answer
Local and district:						
Small (33)*	3.0	15.2	84.8	12.1	9.1
Large (16)	6.2	87.5	12.5	18.8
All (49)	2.0	12.2	85.7	12.2	12.2
State (9)	77.8	22.2	33.3	11.1
Private:						
Small (64)	21.9	14.1	62.5	12.5	14.1	4.7
Large (33)	15.2	81.8	15.2	18.2
All (97)	14.4	14.4	69.1	13.4	15.5	3.1
Total (155)	9.7	12.9	74.8	13.5	15.5	2.6

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of junior colleges reporting that no official schedule is used.

† No combination was reported by more than three respondents in any classification.

reported that there had been no revision of the schedule since the year 1945, while somewhat fewer than two-tenths cited no date.

Because of a desire to probe the influence of the shortage of teachers on the use of schedules in junior colleges, there was included in the inquiry form a question concerning the latest date of use of a schedule in colleges in which the practice was to employ one. Of the 141 colleges that had a definite policy of

decide teachers' salaries, the most common procedure used is that of following the recommendation of the administrator to the board of control. In Table 3, which presents a concise picture of the various methods used to determine teachers' salaries in the absence of schedules, it is shown that approximately 85 per cent of the respondents for local and district institutions without schedules reported this practice. More than three-fourths of the

state institutions reported the procedure. Nearly seven-tenths of the private junior colleges which do not have definite schedules use administrative recommendations to assist in salary determinations. As a total group, practically three out of four junior colleges without schedules follow the practice of having the administrator make recommendations concerning salaries.

Other practices for salary determination reported by respondents for colleges without schedules were that of having a committee of the board responsible for salary adjustments and that of direct conference between the teacher and the board. Except for the large local and district junior colleges, from an eighth to nearly a sixth of the institutions in each of the categories reported the first practice. A significant proportion of schools utilizing direct bargaining is found only in the small private junior colleges. Direct teacher conferences with the board of control were reported for more than a fifth of the small private colleges.

Factors Considered

Another line of inquiry had to do with the factors taken into account in determining salaries. To arrive at this information, respondents were asked to check the individual factors, whether or not an officially formulated salary schedule was used. Responses to this

section of the questionnaire were tabulated in a manner to enable differentiation in the number and the types of factors considered in colleges using schedules and those taken into account in institutions not using schedules. The results of the compilation so made are given in Table 4.

From the column showing the range in the number of factors considered, it is seen that no significant differences exist between the range in number of factors reported by colleges with schedules and by colleges without schedules. The only exceptions to this statement are the large local and district junior colleges and the state institutions with salary schedules, where a smaller range of factors was reported.

When the last column of Table 4 is scanned, however, it may be noted that the median number of factors considered in colleges without official schedules runs consistently higher than the median number of factors reported by respondents in colleges with schedules. The lone exception to the pattern is the group of small private institutions. A possible explanation may be that more factors are brought into consideration in the process of individual bargaining, which undoubtedly develops as a basis for salary determination when no schedule is followed. Another explanation of this tendency may be that the respondents

TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH AND WITHOUT OFFICIAL SALARY SCHEDULES
TAKING INTO ACCOUNT CERTAIN FACTORS IN DETERMINING TEACHERS' SALARIES

Classification	Degrees Held	Years of Preparation	Teaching Experience	Related Experience	Professional Contributions	Professional Growth	Academic Rank	Sex	Cost of Living	Other	Range in Number of Factors
Local and district:											
With schedules:											
Small (39) *	100.0	84.6	100.0	35.9	20.5	7.7	10.3	20.5	43.6	5.1	2-9
Large (59)	89.8	81.4	88.1	52.5	15.3	8.5	45.8	6.8	32.2	10.2	1-8
All (98)	93.9	82.7	92.9	45.9	17.4	8.2	39.8	8.2	36.4	8.2	1-9
Without schedules:											
Small (33)	93.9	63.6	81.8	24.2	54.6	3.0	21.2	12.1	51.5	57.6	1-10
Large (16)	93.8	68.8	81.3	31.3	81.3	12.5	56.3	43.8	31.3	25.0	4-7
All (49)	93.9	65.3	81.6	26.5	63.3	6.1	32.7	22.5	44.9	46.9	1-10
State:											
With schedules (12)	91.7	58.3	83.3	75.0	66.7	8.3	33.3	25.0	33.3	16.7	2-7
Without schedules (9)	100.0	66.7	88.9	66.7	100.0	22.2	55.6	33.3	44.4	5-8
Private:											
With schedules:											
Small (15)	86.7	60.0	73.3	40.0	73.3	26.7	66.7	53.3	6.7	60.0	33.3
Large (16)	93.8	81.3	100.0	56.3	68.8	37.5	43.8	12.5	43.8	18.8	1-11
All (31)	90.3	71.0	87.1	48.4	71.0	32.3	54.8	48.4	9.7	51.6	25.8
Without schedules:											
Small (64)	92.2	79.7	95.3	54.7	82.8	32.8	46.9	25.0	26.6	68.8	2-11
Large (33)	93.9	75.8	93.9	45.5	87.9	24.2	63.6	18.2	24.2	75.8	30.3
All (97)	92.8	78.3	94.9	51.5	84.5	29.9	52.6	22.7	25.8	71.1	1-11
Total:											
With schedules (141)	92.9	78.0	90.8	48.9	33.3	13.5	42.6	18.4	10.6	38.3	11.3
Without schedules (155)	93.5	73.5	90.3	44.5	78.7	21.9	46.5	23.2	32.3	61.9	22.6

* Numbers of colleges with and without schedules.

for colleges in which no official policy had been recorded had less definite information to guide their responses and felt less restricted in completing the questionnaire.

At any rate, in the summation of this item of investigation, it is found that six factors are taken into account by approximately equal proportions of colleges in both categories, those with and those without schedules. In the order of decreasing percentages of institutions reporting them, these six items are: degrees held; teaching experience; years of preparation; related experience; professional growth, as shown by additional courses, travel, etc.; and, to a relatively small extent, academic rank. Four factors are brought into the picture much more in colleges without schedules than in colleges with them. These are teaching ability, cost of living, sex, and professional contributions. For these points, the ratios of the percentages of junior colleges without schedules to the percentages of colleges with schedules reporting their consideration are approximately 2.4 to 1, 1.6 to 1, 3 to 1, and 1.6 to 1, respectively.

The most apparent reason for the widespread consideration of such factors as degrees held, teaching experience, and years of experience, both in institutions operating under schedules and in colleges without schedules, and for the rel-

ative lack of consideration of such items as teaching ability and cost of living in institutions with salary schedules, is that the first group of considerations can be more easily and objectively determined. Therefore procedures for their evaluation can be incorporated into documents determining practices. One may note how this explanation applies to the four factors checked much more frequently by respondents in colleges without schedules. Teaching ability is difficult to evaluate accurately and objectively. Cost of living as a factor is also difficult to determine and to keep up to date. Sex of the instructor, as a basis for differentiation of salary paid, is a point of controversy. Usefulness to the profession and the scholarly character of professional contributions are exceedingly difficult to determine by simple procedures.

Other points can be drawn from the body of Table 4, but owing to the limitations of space these are not discussed here. For example, the proportions of private institutions that consider professional contributions are four to five times larger than the corresponding proportions of the local and district junior colleges. Again, the percentage of private junior colleges with schedules which take academic rank into account is approximately six times as large as the percentage of local and district junior colleges.

Currently, there is considerable research under way looking into methods for evaluating teaching ability. This study made an effort to ascertain the place that teaching ability holds in determining teacher salaries. From Table 4 it is seen that teaching ability is reported to be taken into account in nearly four-fifths of the junior colleges without schedules and in a third with them.

The inquiry form carried the investigation of this point further by asking how teaching ability was determined in those situations where it was reported to be used as a factor in salary adjustments. The generalization that comes out of the compilation of answers to this question is that, in those instances where teaching ability is one of the items used to determine salaries, it is almost always evaluated by nonsystematic means. Specifically, it was found that, in about 70 per cent of the colleges which have schedules and which use teaching ability as a factor in salary determination, this measure is estimated and not ascertained by systematic ratings; in about 9 per cent, use of systematic ratings was reported; and about 21 per cent failed to answer the question. Corresponding proportions in institutions which have no schedules and which use teaching ability as a factor in salary adjustment are: about 74 per cent indicated that

teaching ability is estimated; about 3 per cent reported use of systematic ratings; and approximately 23 per cent did not answer the question. The group of junior colleges making most effort toward use of systematic ratings of teaching ability is the group of local and district colleges with schedules. In this group the proportion reporting use of systematic methods of rating is about 17 per cent.

Authorities on salary policy and practice generally agree that there should be a cost-of-living adjustment in teacher salaries. From Table 4 it is observed that approximately three-eighths of the colleges with schedules and approximately five-eighths of the colleges without schedules take this into account.

The inquiry form called for information concerning the bases for establishing the size of the cost-of-living allowances. The bases that were cited are summarized in Table 5. As would be expected, the current economic situation is the chief factor given consideration in reaching these adjustments. This factor was checked by from three-fourths to all respondents in the different categories of institutions. Dependents are taken into consideration in cost-of-living adjustments in significantly greater proportions of private than of public junior colleges. More small than large colleges in both the private and the

local and district classifications make such adjustments. In relatively few cases are both economic conditions and number of dependents used as a basis for arriving at adjustments.

Salary Differentials for Junior-College Level

Of the total number of junior colleges co-operating in this inves-

Further inquiry on differentials revealed two points of interest. First, the differentials are small. Considering all junior-colleges in systems paying differentials, the median amount of the differential is \$250 in annual salary. Second, the considerations on which the differential is based do not give emphasis to the factor of difference in the level of work. Of the 51 in-

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES REPORTING BASES FOR MAKING COST-OF-LIVING ADJUSTMENTS IN TEACHERS' SALARIES

Classification	(a) Number of Dependents	(b) Economic Conditions	Both (a) and (b)	Others
Local and district:				
Small (36)*	19.4	75.0	5.6	5.6
Large (23)	8.7	100.0	8.7
All (59)	15.3	84.8	6.8	3.4
State (6)	16.7	100.0	16.7
Private:				
Small (53)	30.2	73.6	11.3	15.1
Large (32)	21.9	93.8	28.1	6.3
All (85)	27.1	81.2	17.7	11.8
Total (150)	22.0	83.3	13.3	8.0

* Numbers in parentheses are total numbers of colleges making cost-of-living adjustments.

tigation, 179, or approximately three-fifths, were part of school systems comprehending levels of education lower than the junior college. The proportion was 80 per cent for local and district units and almost 44 per cent for the private units. Table 6 shows that, of the total number of junior colleges in systems comprehending lower levels, approximately 28 per cent report that they pay fixed differentials in salary to the junior-college teachers and approximately 72 per cent report that they do not.

stitutions (28.5 per cent) which were in school systems and in which salary differentials were reported, less than a third reported level of work as the only basis for determining the differential. In nearly half of the same 51 institutions the factor of level of work was a part of the consideration which also gave weight to years of preparation, years of experience, and other factors. This information acquires greater significance when combined with the fact shown in Table 6 that in fewer than three out of every ten

school systems including the junior-college level is there any differential whatever for teaching at the junior-college level. It must be concluded, therefore, that in few school systems is difference in level of work *alone* considered a worthy justification for paying junior-college teachers a higher salary than

ditional pay for these services beyond a full teaching load; in approximately a fifth of the colleges such extra payment is not given. Absence of an extended-day or evening program was reported by approximately a tenth of the respondents, and about another tenth did not answer the question.

TABLE 6.—SALARY POLICIES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES WHICH ARE PARTS OF SYSTEMS INCLUDING HIGH-SCHOOL OR BOTH HIGH-SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Classification	Colleges in Systems		Per Cent of Colleges in Systems	
	Number	Per Cent	With Fixed Differential	Without Fixed Differential
Local and district:				
Small (72)*	63	87.5	28.6	71.4
Large (75)	55	73.3	27.3	72.7
All (147)	118	80.3	28.0	72.0
State (21)	5	23.8	20.0	80.0
Private:				
Small (79)	44	55.7	27.3	72.7
Large (49)	12	24.5	41.7	58.3
All (128)	56	43.8	30.4	69.6
Total (296)	179	60.5	28.5	71.5

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of colleges participating in the study.

is paid teachers at the lower levels in the system.

Payments for Evening Teaching

In discussions on teacher salaries, one often hears the contention that, beyond the remuneration for carrying a normal teaching load, teachers are frequently able to supplement their earnings by teaching in extended-day and evening classes. As shown in Table 7, this study found that approximately three out of five colleges taking part in the study provide addi-

At first glance the proportion of colleges which reported not paying additionally for evening and extended-day activities appears alarmingly high. However, the form called for no explanation of the reasons for not making additional payment, and it is possible that more colleges have no evening programs than is shown in Table 7. Furthermore, many colleges are adopting a policy of paying teachers on the basis of a full load, regardless of whether the actual teaching is done during evening or

regular day sessions. At any rate, it is evident that opportunity for teachers to supplement incomes through such extra work exists much more in public than in private junior colleges.

Some interest may attach to the bases on which rates of pay for evening teaching are determined. Although the bases reported were many and varied, most agreement

considered as a group, practice is about equally divided between payment of salaries through the calendar year and payment only over the span of the school year. About two-thirds of all the public colleges reported that payments were made through the full calendar year. The proportions are reversed in private institutions, where approximately six-tenths re-

TABLE 7.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES PAYING INSTRUCTORS FOR SERVICES RENDERED IN EVENING AND EXTENDED-DAY WORK BEYOND A FULL TEACHING LOAD

Classification	Number of Colleges*	Paying for Services	Not Paying	No Such Program	No Answer
Local and district:					
Small	72	65.2	20.8	7.0	7.0
Large	75	86.7	8.0	4.0	1.3
All	147	76.2	14.3	5.4	4.1
State	21	42.8	42.8	14.3
Private:					
Small	79	38.0	27.9	24.0	10.1
Large	49	61.2	10.2	10.2	18.4
All	128	46.8	21.1	18.8	13.3
Total	296	61.1	19.3	10.8	8.8

* Total numbers of colleges participating in study.

was on a flat rate of pay per clock hour of work. This basis was that reported for more than half of the institutions which provided additional pay for evening teaching.

Spans and Frequencies of Payments

The remaining questions in Part I of the inquiry form looked into certain practices in the administration of salaries. Here the major finding is that, in all junior colleges

ported payments over the span of the school year only.

The most prevalent practice in frequency of payments is the monthly plan. This practice was reported for about 85 per cent of all junior colleges. Notable exception is found in the case of state institutions, where semimonthly payments were reported nearly as frequently as monthly payments. A few colleges were reported to make weekly payments of salaries.

Concluding Observation

Generalizing from reports from the 296 junior colleges reached in this study, one may conclude that, though considerable evidence of use of sound administrative and personnel practices was discovered, much room for improvement yet remains in the area of salary administration in junior colleges. Strongest point in this regard is the fact that only about half the junior colleges use salary schedules. Ef-

fort should be made to determine objectively the factors that ought to be taken into account in a schedule and how the evaluation and continuous applicability of each of the factors can be ascertained. In addition, all junior colleges should build and adopt a soundly constructed schedule; for by this procedure at least some recognition and security for that very important group of junior-college personnel, the classroom teachers, will be assured.

The Functions of the Independent Junior College

W. F. RABE

INTEREST in the junior college and its function within the structure of American higher education has increased over the years in a gratifying manner. In many communities, two-year institutions meet various needs of great importance. The provision of terminal education for many students, vocational preparation for others, and college preparation for those planning to go on have been aims worthy of the support given them, and they deserve greater support in the future. The desire to provide for these aims has led to the establishment of tax-supported institutions, many of which have expanded into community colleges of size and prestige in the service of democratic education. However, another type of junior college, though unpublicized, warrants consideration for the peculiar role that it can play.

Several characteristics of the resident junior college fit it to perform

a singularly important function within the structure of higher education. Such a college usually has a small enrolment, which permits the institution to focus its program toward an end that larger institutions may submerge in an effort to realize more diverse purposes. The smaller size of the independent institution permits even further adjustment of the program to meet a particular problem of education which has recently been discussed in education circles, namely, general education.

The Harvard report on general education¹ lent prestige to the movement for the provision of the unspecialized training which the modern world demands of the educated man. The recent Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education further emphasizes the need for general education. It is quite true that larger universities and public junior colleges can carry on such a program, but the independent junior college should

W. F. RABE is chairman of the Division of Curriculum Instruction at Menlo School and Junior College, Menlo Park, California.

¹ *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945.

be in a particularly advantageous position, because of its reduced size, to provide the faculty and curriculum necessary for a generalized program of education.

Much can be said of the responsibilities that all students will have as citizens, parents, and individuals regardless of their vocational intentions, their diverse interests, or their degrees of ability. The need of each person to communicate effectively with others, to understand political and economic institutions, to understand the world of science and ideals at the base of Western civilization has had frequent restatement and elaboration. The group of courses which all educated men need to cover in their collegiate experience can be the curriculum of the independent junior college. Its whole energy, faculty, and budget can be directed toward the development of general education as can that of no other institution.

Not being a large institution interested in the advance of research, or in service to industry or business, or in training for the professions, the independent junior college does not have to disperse its attention over a large field. The members of the faculty do not have to spend time in maintaining their professional standing through publications and experimentation. Their undivided interest can be focused on the development of a program of general education for stu-

dents. The distinct province of general education which the independent junior college can occupy is of unlimited importance today.

Quantities of words have appeared in print concerning students' needs for adequate guidance and counseling. It has become trite to point out that a large variety of personal problems loom before every young person approaching maturity. Problems of vocational choice, marriage, personal adjustment, and even such matters as study techniques confront the college Freshman. The independent resident junior college can offer an intensive program of guidance of a type which cannot always be provided in other educational institutions. Any college or university can develop a testing program and courses in orientation which contribute greatly to the students' development. The large university and perhaps the public junior college may not be able to afford the luxury of individual personal counselors who can work with students daily through conferences and casual meetings. Knowing the students as individuals who are learning and growing may not always be possible for the faculty in the larger institution, but this is something the independent junior college should accept as its distinct contribution. Its faculty members should be able to deal directly with each student because they know

him personally as well as through a profile of test results.

American colleges have inherited a great tradition of student life and activity from their German and British predecessors. In the larger American institutions this tradition tends to be lost, with the increase in numbers. The opportunity for close student friendships, student leadership, and participation in activities of the students' own interest and creation diminishes under the pressure of size. In the smaller independent junior college, the student still has opportunity for developing responsibility for his own life, for expanding his interests and scope of activities, and for building social techniques through contacts with other students. Dormitory living, student activities, and student government—all offer the student in the resident junior college a complete life which he can create into something that follows the tradition of student life. This, then, is a third characteristic which the independent institution can call its own.

These objectives are narrow in concept, and certainly the independent junior college does not meet all the educational needs of society. Consequently it may not deserve the support of the state through tax funds. But within the thinking of junior-college leaders, such an institution of specialized objectives deserves consideration. The distinct functions which its in-

dependence, size, and living arrangements afford are of vital significance within the structure of higher education. Neither the large university complete with its vast research and scientific programs, nor the public junior college with its broad program of democratic education for youth, can always carry a general-education program to satisfactory completion. In many cases the larger university perhaps would like to see its general-education curriculum shifted to other institutions so that its full resources could be devoted to the needs of the advance of knowledge.

At this point the independent junior college, operating on a small scale, can offer its peculiar advantages to youth. While the large university finds that its objectives are directing attention away from students to the needs of science, and the public junior college finds that its objectives are demanding a diversified program for society as a whole, the independent junior college can fill the gap. It can offer general education on a highly individual basis, enriched with close faculty relationships and a program of student activity and interest following the tradition of the past. Here is a three-sided role for the independent junior college to play in the growth of higher education. This role deserves careful consideration and support in planning for the future.

Student Personnel Relationships of High School and Junior College

WILLIAM A. BLACK

THIS article is the third and last in a series which presents the results of a questionnaire study of student personnel practices used in junior colleges. The study was planned by the Committee on Student Personnel Problems of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and the detailed work of tabulating replies to the schedule was carried on in the Research Office of the Association at the University of Chicago.

The "Facts concerning Student Personnel Practices" were reported by J. Anthony Humphreys in the September number of the *Junior College Journal*. Dean Charlotte D. Meinecke, in the October number of the *Junior College Journal*, described the practices reported in "Placement and Follow-up in Junior Colleges." The present article reports the information obtained from the section of the schedule

dealing with "Junior-College and High-School Relationships in Personnel Services."

Usable returns were received from 320 junior colleges, almost half of those to whom the schedule was sent. Approximately 48 per cent of the junior colleges responding were local and district public junior colleges; 43 per cent were private institutions; and 9 per cent were state junior colleges. The private and the local and district colleges were further divided into small and large categories, those enrolling fewer than three hundred students being classified as small colleges; those with enrolments of three hundred or over, as large institutions.

Types of Information Sought

Any attempt to find the facts concerning the relation of personnel services in junior colleges and high schools might reasonably start with an examination of the data on incoming college students. Co-operating relations should be evidenced by the types of information that colleges seek and obtain from the supporting high schools. A high degree of co-operation would be marked by the transfer to the col-

WILLIAM A. BLACK is head of the Department of Education and Psychology at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas. He is a member of the Committee on Student Personnel Problems of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

lege of such data as transcript of record, class rank, personality ratings, records on psychological and achievement tests, extra-class activities, and work experience.

Practically all junior colleges maintain some contact with supporting high schools. The records most frequently obtained are the student's transcript, class rank, test results, and extra-class record. In all categories of this study, more private junior colleges than state and local and district junior colleges seek information, and, in turn, more local and district than state junior colleges seek data. Forty-six per cent of the local and district and 53 per cent of the private colleges seek psychological-test data from supporting high schools, while only 30 per cent of the state colleges seek this information. More than 40 per cent of the local and district and the private colleges seek information from supporting high schools on students' achievement-test records, while only 20 per cent of the state colleges ask for these records. In comparison with local and district colleges, state and private junior colleges more frequently seek information on students' personal ratings and study habits and less frequently seek information on achievement-test results.

Some institutions of all types ask for records of work experience. More than 20 per cent of the private institutions and about 12 per cent of local and district junior colleges ask

for information on work experience. Ten per cent of state junior colleges call for data of this type.

The median number of types of information sought by all institutions is three. Private junior colleges seek information on more items than do the local and district and the state institutions.

Time for Receipt of Information

Practically all junior colleges want information about their incoming students on or before the registration date. The common practice is to receive records during the summer prior to registration. Sixty-seven per cent of the state, 56 per cent of the local and district, and 53 per cent of the private institutions report this practice. In the case of private and local and district colleges, the percentages of small institutions reporting this practice are less than the percentage of large institutions.

More than 5 per cent report that information for some students is sought on application for entrance or after registration. Nearly 30 per cent of the private colleges ask for information concerning prospective students during their last semester in high school. This practice is followed by more than 17 per cent of the local and district junior colleges.

Uses of Information Sought

More than 87 per cent of the respondents reported that the data secured from supporting high schools were used in guidance of

students following admission. Large percentages of private and state colleges also use this information in the admission of students. Many of the local and district junior colleges, since they are largely non-selective, use the data for purposes of classification of students.

students' records are kept in the counselor's office.

Visits of Representatives to High Schools

It is common practice for representatives of junior colleges to visit supporting high schools. From

TABLE 1.—PURPOSES IN VISITS BY REPRESENTATIVES TO CONTRIBUTING HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED BY 320 JUNIOR COLLEGES

Group of Institutions	Percentage of Colleges Giving Information about Institution through—			Percentage of Colleges Administering Tests to—		
	Talks to Seniors	Interviews with Seniors	Interviews with Seniors and Lower Classes	All Seniors	Seniors Interested	Lower-Class Members
Local and district:						
Small (72)*	79.2	58.3	15.3	12.5	2.8	2.8
Large (81)	96.3	58.0	19.8	11.1	11.1	2.5
All (153)	88.2	58.2	17.6	11.8	7.2	2.6
State (30)						
86.7	43.3	36.7	3.3	3.3
Private:						
Small (93)	62.4	31.2	35.5	1.1	6.5	1.1
Large (44)	79.6	29.6	47.7	2.3	6.8	4.6
All (137)	67.9	30.7	39.4	1.5	6.6	2.2
Total (320) ...	79.4	45.0	28.8	6.6	6.3	2.5

* Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of institutions in the group.

Summary Forms and Place of Filing

Approximately two-thirds of all respondents reported the use of forms for summarizing the data obtained. The most common place for filing the data is the office of the dean or the office of the registrar, or both. Some colleges file this information in two or three offices. Fourteen per cent of all colleges use individual folders. In this practice the large colleges in all categories exceed the small colleges. About 14 per cent of all colleges report that

Table 1 it is seen that 79 per cent of the co-operating institutions reported that their representatives give talks to high-school Seniors and 45 per cent have interviews with Seniors. Representatives of nearly half of the large private institutions also have interviews with lower-class members. This practice is common in more than a third of small private and state institutions and in a sixth of local and district institutions. Testing of Seniors by college representatives is not a com-

mon practice; it was reported by 12.5 per cent of the small local and district institutions and 11.1 per cent of the large local and district schools.

The purpose of the interviews and talks is to inform the students about the college represented and not, in general, to provide educational and vocational guidance except as it applies to the representative's college. Few junior-college functionaries visit high schools for the purpose of administering tests. Approximately one out of ten of the local and district junior colleges reported visits for this purpose.

Initiative in Establishing Co-operation

The head or the assistant head of the college, the director of admissions, or the director of personnel are the functionaries who most often initiate co-operative relationships with the high schools. The head or the assistant head of the college is most frequently mentioned.

Table 2 shows that fewer than a third of the respondents reported that instructors frequently make contact with students of supporting high schools. The proportions of institutions reporting instructor contacts with students of supporting high schools were largest in the following groups: small separate local and district colleges, state colleges, large associated colleges, and four-year public colleges.

Visiting Days for High-School Students

Fewer than a third of the junior colleges in all categories hold visiting days for high-school Seniors. The practice is most common in state colleges, being followed in 43 per cent of the state institutions reporting. It is also a common practice in more than a third of the local and district colleges. Visiting days which include high-school students from lower classes were reported by only 8 per cent of the colleges.

Meetings of Personnel

More than two-fifths of the large local and district colleges reported joint meetings of representatives of supporting high schools and junior colleges. This practice was reported by colleges in all categories, but it is less prevalent in state and private colleges. This difference is to be expected since these meetings are easier to arrange when the area served is limited and when students come from a small number of supporting high schools.

Other Co-operative Practices

In addition to those already mentioned, co-operative practices of fifteen other types were reported. With the exception of activities sponsored for high-school students, no single practice was reported by more than five respondents. These activities ranged from jointly sponsored extra-class activities to joint guidance and curriculum meetings.

Only single institutions reported the following: joint curriculum meeting, visiting day for high-school guidance directors, counseling service available for high-school students as part of the visiting-day program.

year private junior college; in the case of the four private four-year colleges that provided this information, the director of admissions carries a larger responsibility for this function. Visiting supporting high schools and making contact with

TABLE 2.—PERCENTAGES OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING THAT CERTAIN STAFF MEMBERS FREQUENTLY HAVE CONTACT WITH STUDENTS IN CONTRIBUTING HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Group of Institutions</i>	<i>Head or Assistant</i>	<i>Director of Admissions</i>	<i>Director of Student Personnel</i>	<i>Director of Guidance</i>	<i>Classroom Instructor</i>	<i>Deans of Men and Women</i>	<i>Counselor</i>	<i>Others</i>
Local and district:								
Separate two-year:								
Small (14)*	100.0	21.4	14.3	7.1	50.0	7.1	7.1	7.1
Large (46)	73.9	41.3	26.1	8.7	26.1	21.7	8.7
All (60)	80.0	36.7	23.3	8.3	31.7	18.3	1.7	8.3
Association:								
Small (47)	100.0	19.2	14.9	31.9	4.3	6.4
Large (21)	100.0	33.3	28.6	4.8	42.9	9.5	4.8	9.5
All (68)	100.0	23.5	19.1	1.5	35.3	2.9	4.4	7.4
Four-year (13)	69.2	38.5	23.1	15.4	38.5	30.1
All local and district (141)	88.7	30.5	21.3	5.7	34.0	9.2	5.7	7.1
State (28)	75.0	39.3	25.0	50.0	7.1
Private:								
Separate two-year:								
Small (45)	84.4	48.9	17.8	24.4	6.7	4.4	13.3
Large (36)	52.8	55.6	22.2	13.9	5.6	16.7
All (81)	70.4	51.9	19.8	19.8	4.9	14.8
Association (31)	71.0	61.3	12.9	32.3	12.9
Four-year (4)	25.0	75.0	25.0	50.0
All private (116)	69.0	55.2	18.1	22.4	2.6	3.4	15.5
Total (285)	79.3	41.4	20.4	2.8	30.9	5.6	4.2	10.5

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers in the groups answering the questions.

Representatives Making Visits

The data in Table 2 indicate that, with one exception, large percentages of all categories of junior colleges reported that the head or the assistant head of the junior college is engaged in making contact with students in the contributing high schools. The exception is the four-

students seem to be important functions of the head or the assistant head of the college.

Concluding Comment

The respondents were, for the most part, heads of colleges, and in some instances they may have reported better practices than actu-

ally are used. On the other hand, the small number of promising practices reported by many of these administrators leads the writer to believe that the reports are representative of actual practice.

This study attempts only to determine the practices that are currently in use. It does not attempt to determine how effective the practices are in providing improved student personnel service.

In so far as it was possible to ascertain, the best articulation with the high schools in personnel services has been attained by four-year junior colleges and colleges associated with high schools. Joint meetings of high-school representatives and college representatives are more frequent in the large local and district junior colleges.

The question on location of student personnel files may, at first, seem trivial, but its importance lies in the fact that information must be available to counselors. If there is only one copy of a record and that copy is filed in the dean's office, it may be less used by counselors than is desirable.

It is surprising that so small a number of colleges make use of visiting days for high-school students, since this is a well-known method of interesting prospective students in a college. It is also surprising that more college personnel who visit high schools do not use some of their time in giving general educational guidance.

The small local and district junior colleges seem slow to accept the responsibility for assembling data on in-coming students during the summer preceding entrance. Little guidance in planning courses is possible if enrolment starts at the time the data are received.

Present-day philosophy of student personnel services considers that functionaries should know, within reason, all that it is possible to know about students. If the necessary information is to be obtained, a much closer articulation between high schools and colleges in student personnel services is a necessity. While in this study the reports of many of the colleges reflect weak programs, respondents indicate that they are taking the initiative for co-ordinating junior-college and high-school activities.

In the colleges in all categories the schedules returned show a lack of adequate services in many of the items. In far too many cases, the head of the college is responsible for initiating and carrying on too large a part of the work in student personnel services. Either there is a shortage of trained personnel for many of the services that colleges should render, or there has been a lag in the employment of such personnel and the allocation of time to carry on the duties. It is also evident that most administrators have not organized their staffs to make use of individual abilities in student personnel services.

The Experimental Role of the Junior College

F. A. FREDENBURGH

LIKE the hen and the egg, it is not entirely clear whether the organization of the junior college grew out of its announced objectives or whether the objectives outgrew principles of organization inherited from the precedent of the senior-college pattern. Probably the chief reason for the rapid growth and development of the junior college has been its relative fluidity and readiness to adapt its objectives and organizational machinery, both initially and thereafter, to the felt needs of the constituent community which it serves.

The President's Commission on Higher Education has criticized the present organization of higher education in this country, "not only because its static nature tends to slow down the normal processes of change, but also because our institutions have come down to us loaded with traditions."¹ In referring to the junior (community) college, however, the Commission remarks significantly, "Its domi-

nant feature is its intimate relations to the life of the community it serves."²

The junior college continues to play the role of the experimental unit in higher education to a much greater extent than do its sister senior institutions. Administrators and instructors, alike, have dared to embark upon unorthodox and untried methods. Means have been found to encourage and interest thousands of young men and women in expanding their intellectual, cultural, and vocational horizons beyond the high-school level. The junior college has offered challenge and opportunity for self-expression to thousands of youth who would not, or could not, find their way to the traditional four-year college or university campus.

Character of Junior-College Education

The experimental character of junior-college education may be epitomized in four steps.

¹ *Organizing Higher Education*, p. 1. *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. III. A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947.

² *Ibid.*, p. 5.

F. A. FREDENBURGH is dean of the Junior College of Commerce at New Haven, Connecticut.

1. It has made a pioneering effort to provide a general cultural education for social living and democratic citizenship, while at the same time providing practical training in occupational skills—and it attempts to do this in two years, not four. This statement is not to imply that what is accomplished in four years in senior college is here achieved in two but rather to indicate that, conceivably, educational needs are different for discernibly different purposes.

The junior college has been able to provide educational opportunities in the presence of needs which were clearly not being met for a very considerable number of four-year college entrants. Student mortality in the Freshman and Sophomore years of four-year colleges had reached alarming proportions in 1937, when McNeely showed that 34 out of 100 students dropped out during the Freshman year and 17 out of 100 left by the end of the second year. Only 37 per cent eventually graduated.³ This was, however, no new problem to higher education. President William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago recognized the presence of this situation in 1892, when the senior and the junior colleges were separated and students were permitted to terminate their

³ John H. McNeely, *College Student Mortality*, p. 21. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 11, 1937.

education logically and honorably at the end of two years. In fact, the University of Chicago was the first institution in the United States to award the associate degree upon the completion of two years of collegiate study. This degree, still so little known in this country, first appeared in English higher education. As early as 1873, it was conferred at the University of Durham after two years of college studies.⁴ Recently a number of colleges and universities, in recognition of the serious problem of student mortality, have established so-called "general colleges." Their number is increasing.

2. The junior college has recognized and given academic respectability to the middle-level occupations—those occupations falling between the professions and the trades, frequently referred to as "semiprofessional." The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*⁵ now lists 265 basic semiprofessional occupations, with many more than this number of titles if alternates are counted. Not all these occupations, however, are worthy of being dignified as middle-level occupations, preparation for which implies two

⁴ Walter C. Eells, *Associate's Degrees and Graduation Practices in Junior Colleges*, p. 7. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1942.

⁵ United States Employment Service, *Dictionary of Occupational Titles: Part II, Group Arrangement of Occupational Titles and Codes*, pp. 9-16. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

years of college study. Yet the fact that there are a substantial number of semiprofessional occupations and that some measure of collegiate preparation is indicated for them is a significant step forward in the development of our national educational pattern. Credit for identifying the semiprofessions with junior-college education appears to belong to C. L. McLane, of the Fresno Junior College.⁶

3. The junior college acknowledges its community responsibility by attempting to develop its semiprofessional curriculums around community employment needs and opportunities. Ideally, it surveys the economic and social organization of the community, the employment of its people, the probable future development of the community, and attempts to train young men and women for useful lives in the community where they are most likely to spend the remainder of their days. To be sure, not all junior colleges determine their curricular offerings on this basis, but a substantial and increasing number do.⁷

⁶ C. L. McLane, "The Fresno Junior College," *California Weekly*, II (July 15, 1910), 539-40. As quoted in Walter C. Eells, *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education*, p. 16. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

⁷ Phebe Ward, *Terminal Education in the Junior College*, pp. 53-55. Prepared for the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Terminal Education of the American Association of Junior Colleges. New York: Harper & Bros., 1947.

4. The junior college has recognized the importance of training for followership as well as for leadership. Colleges and universities throughout the country have expressed great interest in training for leadership. Many of them have been primarily interested in selecting for admission only those who are potential leaders. Too little interest has been shown in the great mass of average young men and women, who will never become great leaders but who will make excellent followers. Moreover, higher education had expressed no serious concern for this great and important group of young people until the advent of the junior college. The common man is not so common that he does not deserve careful consideration in the pattern of higher education in this great country. It is especially significant that the junior college has not only taken interest in, but has made a place for, the average youth and for followership, in higher education. The junior college, however, has produced its quota of young leaders, and it also has its quota of brilliant young minds, capable of the best and highest type of training of which college faculties are capable. Let it not be assumed, by these observations, that the junior college is marked by the intellectual mediocrity of its student body. An examination of the results from the administration of the American

Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen, so widely used among junior colleges, will dispel immediately any false assumptions on this score.

These four functions represent distinguished efforts at intelligent human engineering at the junior-college level. To combine vision with skill and tie it into community needs is indeed an accomplishment worthy of more than passing note. Today's world demands that citizens not only know *how to live* but also *how to make a living*. The junior college conceives its fundamental purpose to be well expressed in this twofold objective. If the junior college is successful in helping young people to crystallize a workable philosophy of life, to develop personal adequacy, and at the same time to prepare for occupational competency, it has earned an important and long-enduring place in the educational pattern of this country.

Need for Integrated Training

But it has far to go—much farther than this! General education and occupational competency are not two separate entities which cannot be merged. In fact, they are so closely related that they should be regarded as but separate branches springing from the same tree trunk. Today we speak of survey courses in natural and social science and in the humanities. We see per-

centage patterns of 40-40-20 representing the desired relationship between general (cultural) courses, semiprofessional courses, and optional (elective) courses.⁸ We hear of "T-courses" (trial for the first year and training for the second).⁹

As an independent, terminal agency of higher education, unhampered by tradition, the junior college has before it the unexplored, uncharted areas of curricular development wherein no such artificial separation between good citizenship, personal adequacy, and occupational competency need exist. Does the junior accountant divest himself of good citizenship when he enters on his daily employment at 9:00 A.M., and does he reclode himself with this covering at 5:30 P.M.? Is it any less important for him to enjoy personal adequacy at the office than over the bridge table? The curriculum as we know it today imposes artificial separations of function which are not met with in life. These the junior college has it within its grasp to demolish. The crucible is there. Where are the laborers?

Educational and Vocational Guidance

Some distinguished work in educational and vocational guidance

⁸ Walter C. Eells, *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education*, p. 93. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 98.

has been undertaken at the junior-college level, but only the surface has been scratched. The junior college has given increasing attention to collecting information about students—about their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and educational and vocational plans. Occupational exploratory courses, courses in orientation to college and life, have been tried out and successfully offered at the junior-college level. Efforts have been made to tie in occupational preparation with community needs (as we have already indicated). The development of placement services and the conduct of follow-up studies have marked the junior-college movement. Many secondary schools and four-year colleges and universities have also pioneered in these areas. But there remains, for the future, efficient collection and dissemination of occupational information and skilful utilization of the tools of diagnosis and prognosis to the end that young men and women make sound and sensible educational plans and vocational choices. Intelligent occupational planning and counseling are more important now than ever before. This is no time to play Cornwallis with occu-

pational information and occupational counseling, to deal out "fluff" and sometimes fake for failure to have taken the initiative in developing *effective* avenues of approach to so challenging a problem. Indeed, the Gordian knot of vocational guidance¹⁰ remains uncut. The junior college bids fair to find means and ways to solve this and other vexing problems confronting the frontiers of educational thought.

The Demands of the Times

But the cold fact still remains that students will learn and progress only so far as their instructors are prepared to carry them, only so far as college administrators deem it important enough to find the resources and intellectual stimulation to carry forward. Enlightened leadership, a critical appraisal of what the real needs are, and inspiration and determination to carry on, in spite of obstacles and lethargic support from those who have most to gain by fundamental advances, are the demands of the times.

¹⁰ F. A. Fredenburgh, "The Gordian Knot of Vocational Guidance," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 53-66.

Junior-College World

JESSE P. BOGUE

Executive Secretary

TENNESSEE WESLEYAN'S NEW GYMNASIUM

At a recent meeting of the Board of Trustees of Tennessee Wesleyan College, Athens, Tennessee, it was decided that a new gymnasium will be built at a cost not to exceed \$175,000. The new building will house gymnasium, physical-education classrooms, and other facilities pertaining to the physical-education program at the College. Architects chosen to draw plans for the building are Poundstone, Ayers, and Godwin, of Atlanta, the same firm which made the plans for Lawrence Hall, girls' dormitory, and Merner-Pfeiffer Library, the two latest structures erected on the campus of Wesleyan. The new structure was provided for by the United College Movement of the Holston Conference, Methodist Church.

CREATIVE SCRIPT-WRITING

The School of Photography at Everett Junior College, Washington, is not only teaching the standard photographic courses, from basic photography through advanced commercial, portrait, and color work, but has also recently in-

troduced a new course which is probably a pioneer in junior colleges. Everett Junior College's combined course of visual education and creative script-writing is said to be the only one of this type in any junior college in the United States.

This course is planned and outlined to give the student a thorough grounding in preparing the most important types of visual-education films and aids for the commercial market. The most important phase of the work is the making of slide and strip films, which are so popular in the field of education today.

Stressing the importance of technical excellence and following the school's characteristic policy of student individualism, the student is started in his course by introducing himself to the prospective customer, owner, or superintendent of the business or plant where the film is to be taken. In this initial interview, the purposes of the film (safety, training, etc.) are outlined in detail; then facilities for lighting, space, etc., are checked. Next, the superintendent or a technical expert takes a group of students on a tour of the plant, during which the stu-

dents make notes along the lines of that particular film's purpose.

The next important step is in the creative script-writing class, where each prepares his own script from his notes. These scripts comprise the dialogue which will accompany the film either on records or in print form. The class also discusses and decides definitely on what shots or pictures will parallel the dialogue.

The individual scripts having been completed, the students and instructor hear and discuss each. After the comparison, the best composite is arrived at, the only restriction on complete student production being the pointing-out and correcting of English and composition mistakes by the instructor in creative writing from the English department. The same is done on the planning of shots in the film by the photographic instructor.

When the script is completely prepared, a date is set (models are hired if that particular film calls for such), and the shooting begins. Films are shot in black and white and in color. On the actual location with the script that he has helped prepare, and taking the film with a real purpose which is actually intended for distribution, the student learns much more than in mere classroom instruction. Throughout the shooting, the student is not only given the opportunity for individual expression but

is also well instructed in correct procedure.

When the shooting is complete, the students follow through by processing the film, making titles, and shaping it into the finished product. Films made by the Everett Junior College students have already been nationally distributed. Many are made for, and in co-operation with, the Washington State Board of Vocational Education and the office of the county superintendent of schools.

Other forms of visual education, such as flash cards, drawings, blackboard stencils, opaque projections, etc., are also produced by the students in these classes. Furthermore, they learn the operation of the various projectors used in this work.

ANOTHER NATIONAL GUARD UNIT

Publicity has been given in recent months, mainly through the *Washington Newsletter*, about the organization of National Guard units on the campuses of junior colleges. Two units are located on the campus of Arkansas Polytechnic College at Russellville, and a company was recently organized at John Muir College, Pasadena, California.

We have just learned of the company at East Central Junior College, Decatur, Mississippi. It was organized in 1932. The company made an enviable record

during the recent war and was re-activated in 1947. The company commander at the college before the war has now been promoted to the position of adjutant general of the state of Mississippi. It is claimed that the East Central National Guard Company was the first in the United States to reach full strength following the reactivation of the National Guard organization by the Department of Military Affairs.

90TH INFANTRY DIVISION BAND

Del Mar College, Corpus Christi, Texas, has the honor of providing and training the band for the 90th Infantry Reserve Division. It is stated that the College received ten thousand dollars worth of instruments free. Uniforms are provided for the thirty-six members of the Division Band, and members are paid for practice hours and for playing on required military occasions. The military band is expanded with additional musicians for collegiate affairs. Other junior colleges might be interested in conferring with reserve officials in their states or with the adjutant generals for opportunities for similar services. Del Mar College was formerly Corpus Christi Junior College.

READING CLINIC AT BRIDGEPORT

As a college-community service, the University of Bridgeport, Connecticut, with the Junior College of

Connecticut as a definitely organized division, has established a Reading Laboratory under the directorship of Gladys L. Persons, co-founder of a similar laboratory at New York University and for seven years author of the *Reader's Digest* series, "Reading for Profit and Pleasure."

The laboratory is equipped to provide diagnostic and remedial work in reading and is available to children of all ages and adults in the community as well as to University students.

The schedule will provide reading classes from 9 A.M. to 1 P.M. for persons eight to thirty years old, who have subnormal reading habits. Afternoons will be devoted to University students who are slow with reading assignments. The evening schedule will include classes for adults and classes for teachers in the methods of teaching, while Saturdays will be devoted to persons requiring "just a little help in reading."

Miss Persons is also co-author of a series of textbooks, *Reading and Thinking*, printed by Macmillan Company. Her most recent publication was a sixth-grade workbook consisting of excerpts from her articles in the *Reader's Digest*.

A FOUR-STATE OIL SCHOOL

Rocky Mountain educators and oil-industry leaders have announced that Casper Junior College, Wyoming, has been selected

as the center of a vocational oil-training program for men of Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, and Montana.

Training courses at the Casper school, chosen because of its location "nearest the Rocky Mountains' greatest oil-producing region," started in August and will eventually cover all phases of oil production and refining. Maurice F. Griffith, junior-college dean, said the first courses, in "drilling mud control," attracted a class of approximately thirty men from the oil industry.

Oil-industry people and heads of state-federal vocational education formed a special advisory committee to develop the courses of training. They included Casper oil men, representing Ohio Oil Company, Standard of Indiana, the Brinkerhoff Drilling Company, Texas Oil Company, and the Rocky Mountain Oil and Gas Association. John Woodruff, of Texas University, representing the American Association of Oil Well Drilling Contractors and the American Oil Institute's division of refining and production, was in Casper to aid in setting up the program.

"The vocational oil-training project at Casper College," Woodruff said, "is part of a nation-wide program already or being established in junior colleges from Louisiana to California."

The full vocational program, for which the college will receive fed-

eral-state financial compensation, will be open both to those within the industry now and to future employees.

HANNIBAL-LA GRANGE STUDENT CENTER

On September 7, the new student center at Hannibal-La Grange Junior College, Hannibal, Missouri, was opened for the first time. According to President A. E. Prince, the materials for the building were purchased at low cost from the government. Practically all the construction work on the eighty-by twenty-seven-foot building was done by the maintenance men and the students. The main floor gives space to offices, a bookstore and snack room, and a student lounge which occupies the major portion of the area. The building has a full basement, where many kinds of games can be played.

This writer, in his extensive travels throughout the United States, has found that junior colleges are giving increasing attention to the necessity for student centers. If prices for the erection of elaborate and costly buildings are prohibitive, ways and means are being found to construct them on more simple lines for functional purposes. Some of the structures that we have seen are substantial, are provided with generous lighting, are decorated in attractive pastel colors, and are comfortably furnished.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

IN THE March, 1947, issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education*, an article from the pen of this writer appeared under the title "Some Critical Problems in the Junior Colleges." The problems at that time were the more immediate ones, such as the crowded conditions in buildings observed from coast to coast. Through extensive assistance from the federal government with temporary buildings and considerable equipment, the problem of congestion has been fairly well solved for the present. The federal government in a recent report states that in excess of \$500,000,000 in surplus properties have been obtained by educational institutions. The report of the government does not include information regarding the amount of property received by junior colleges. However, it is believed that the distribution in most states was on an equitable basis.

The more critical problem today is the need for permanent buildings, because temporary structures are just that. In view of the fact that the temporary buildings, both

for educational and for housing purposes, may now belong to the institutions, desirable improvements may be made to extend the days of their usefulness. We have observed some surplus buildings that have been made quite substantial. Examples may be found on college grounds where naval steel barrack buildings were re-erected on concrete foundations, the walls bricked, and the interiors plastered and tastefully decorated. Such buildings will last as long as would construction designed from the beginning to be permanent in nature.

Their numbers, however, are not large, and sooner or later the need for permanent homes for junior colleges and the necessity for expansion of present plants will have to be met. The first wave of war babies entered school in 1947. It is estimated that 3,000,000 new children will enrol in school in 1949 and that by 1954-55 there will be 6,200,000 more children in public elementary and secondary schools than there were in 1947-48. This increase alone will require 200,000

new classrooms. This figure takes no account of the need for replacement of vast numbers of dilapidated schoolhouses.

Based simply on the present ratio of attendance to population in the different age groups, estimates have been made that by 1955 there will be 2,600,000 students in our colleges and universities. When it is considered that the percentage of young persons attending college has been steadily increasing during the past several decades, it is presumed that the ratio of college attendance in 1955 will have increased. The President's Commission on Higher Education boldly asserts that by 1960 at least 4,600,000 young people should be enrolled in nonprofit educational institutions beyond the traditional twelfth grade. The Commission does not make a prediction that this number will be enrolled but rather that this *should* be the case. In the light of past experience and present and future needs for post-high-school education, one may well draw a reasonable conclusion that the enrolment in the next ten years will fall somewhere between the estimate based on present ratios of attendance and the assertion of the Commission.

This situation—and the time is very short—is one that demands far more attention than our citizens generally are willing to give

at the present time. "Let's wait and see," too often characterizes the attitude of our school boards and the citizens of the communities. As representatives of education and, let us hope, as progressive, alert, and aggressive citizens, junior-college people will do well to bring this critical problem before their communities and constituents as graphically and constantly as possible.

Naturally, problems of cost enter the picture right from the start, as well as those of organization of educational units and administration. The average building cost index for the first six months of 1948 was 331.21 on a 1913 base of 100, as compared with 239.14 in 1945 and 307.68 in 1947. The actual number of dollars to be spent will be far greater, but the national income is fully adequate to meet the increased costs. The problem is to convince the citizens and constituents that the job can be done. For instance, in 1940 the current expense per pupil in average daily attendance in elementary and high schools in the United States was \$88.09, but in 1944 the amount went up to \$116.99. The total current expenditure, as a per cent of our total income, according to the United States Office of Education, actually dropped from 2.40 in 1940 to 1.26 in 1944. In Washington, D.C., where we listen to and

read stories about *mounting costs of education*, the percentage dropped from 1.25 in 1940 to a national low of .84! Not one state in the nation paid as much as 3 per cent in 1944, although some were paying higher than 4 per cent in 1940. We do not have at hand the facts to show what the percentages are for 1947 as compared with 1944, but we shall make a guess that the situation is not significantly better, although in 1946 the percentage was 1.53 for the nation.

Fundamentally, the problem is the same as it was more than a year ago, with the difference that buildings must now be constructed for permanent use at much greater expense with a lengthened time element. There is still great urgency in the situation. Courage and an honest presentation of the facts will be necessary, not once, but time and again and by all legitimate means at the command of statesmanlike school men. It would be worse than folly to permit the public and our supporting constituencies to know less than all the facts.

Again, in 1947 we pointed out that a critical problem for junior colleges was the lack of state leadership and planning for all the youth of the states. This problem has been approached more vigorously during the past year. The action of the National Council of

Chief State School Officers at their national meeting last December is an indication of the awakening interest of state leaders in education to the junior college. The report of the Chief State School Officers is, we believe, worthy of much wider attention than it has received up to this time. One state superintendent said recently, "We shall have to ease the junior college along in our state as best we can, permitting a community here and another there to develop their programs largely on their own responsibilities. When enough junior colleges make their establishment an accomplished fact in the state, then we can put through legislation for some kind of systematic control and support." This kind of cart-before-the-horse procedure is characteristic of many states. Few state legislatures, however, work from a master-plan of action; rather they work from local pressures and hence a master-plan becomes an afterthought. It might be suggested that legislative action could be more readily put through if digests of state surveys on education could be made. From our personal knowledge of legislators we are sure that few of them will take time to read surveys that run from three hundred to six hundred pages. The reactions of legislatures are frequently psychological rather than logical.

The shortage of well-qualified teachers, especially in science and mathematics, was a very critical problem in 1946, although by 1947 the situation had become better. There is still considerable demand for teachers in these fields, but generally speaking the teacher demand in junior colleges has been greatly improved in recent months. A year ago, the Washington office of the Association received many appeals by letter, telegram, and telephone for assistance in securing instructors. During the past several months few requests have been received.

Evidently positions have been filled, but the problem remains as to the qualifications of teachers, otherwise competent in their respective fields of instruction, for understanding the philosophy and objectives of the junior college. Many calls come to the Washington office for assistance on the in-service training of faculties in this respect. The program for the new county colleges of England requires all teachers, regardless of preparation and experience, to spend at least six months in a course of study in the philosophy, methods, and objectives of the county colleges. One of the three main reasons why the movement failed following the First World War was the fact that teachers thought of these colleges not as unique in-

stitutions but just as *some more schooling*.

This writer recently met with a state committee whose responsibility was that of defining standards for junior colleges. The committee went on record as favoring a required course of study in the junior-college philosophy as a prerequisite to full certification of teachers. A number of universities are becoming increasingly aware of professional responsibility to the junior colleges. The record of workshops, conferences, and courses of study in more than forty of our universities during the past year is evidence of an awakening to the need. The special two-year graduate program at the University of Texas for administrators, teachers, and personnel officers for junior colleges should be a most welcome movement. It will be watched with interest, and the influence of the American Association of Junior Colleges will be used to further its progress in every possible manner. Already the Board of Directors has addressed a letter to the University of Texas in commendation of the forward step.

The Board of Directors has approved a plan for a series of special junior-college workshops for the summer of 1949. At least fifteen of these workshops will be held in strategic universities from coast to coast. Harvard University, encour-

aged by the success of the 1948 session for junior colleges under the able leadership of Dr. William Langsdorf, of Pasadena City College, is making plans for one of national and perhaps international importance during the summer of 1949. These plans call for one outstanding representative from each state and, if possible, for a few representatives from foreign countries. The session will last for six weeks. One of the aims of the workshop will be that of securing a constant cross-sectional view of the development of the junior college in the United States and of similar movements in other countries. Thus it may be seen that the Association is well aware of the need to have faculties that are informed about the junior college itself and enthusiastic about its objectives as a unique institution.

Closely allied to the problem of professional university leadership is the continuing problem of making co-operative plans for a more natural flow of junior-college graduates into upper-division studies. During the past year a number of conferences have been held on this problem. At the University of Iowa Junior College Workshop this past summer, a day's session was conducted with

the registrars of the University, of the State College, and of the State Teachers College and representatives of practically all junior colleges in Iowa. The purpose of this meeting was to come to clearer understandings as to ways and means of facilitating the transfer of junior-college graduates for further study in senior state institutions.

A proposal has been made that a state organization of all institutions of higher learning in Iowa be formed as a further step toward better understanding and co-operation. There are organizations of this character in several states, Virginia and Connecticut, for example, and the results of their conferences are most gratifying. The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education rightly points out the barriers, often arbitrary and artificial, erected in requirements in senior colleges against the free flow of students into advanced standing. The solution of the problem appears to be in round-table, face-to-face discussions about the difficulties involved. They are not insurmountable. Junior-college leaders may do well to take the initiative in bringing about state conferences for closer co-operation with senior institutions.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

SEYMOUR E. HARRIS, *How Shall We Pay for Education? Approaches to the Economics of Education.* New York 1: Harper & Bros., 1948. Pp. x+214. \$3.00.

One of the most critical problems facing education at all levels is economic in origin. Competition for the tax dollar makes the financing of public education increasingly difficult. On the other hand, the burden of taxation which reduces potential gifts to private institutions and the low interest rates on existing endowments imperil adequate support of private education.

It is appropriate, therefore, for a professor of economics to direct his attention to some of the basic or long-run and some of the transitory or short-run economic problems facing education. Seymour E. Harris, of Harvard University, has attempted to do this in his recent book *How Shall We Pay for Education?*

WILLIAM H. CONLEY, the writer of this review, is specialist in junior college and lower division education with the Division of Higher Education of the United States Office of Education.

Professor Harris, after discussing "The Crisis in Education" and after presenting "The Book in Capsule Form," divides his presentation into an analysis of the problem of inflation, the supply and demand for teachers and educated men and women, and the sources of income for education. As one might expect from his background, the author is primarily interested in institutions of higher learning. Much of his discussion, however, is significant for all educators, and particularly for those concerned with the junior college because the junior college, which is the latest addition to the educational hierarchy, is most vulnerable to economic fluctuations.

According to Professor Harris, the crisis in education is one that has been brought on by prosperity, by rising prices, and by expanding government budgets. It has been brought on by inflation, "the termite that consumes the educational dollar" (p.44). One who has been concerned with the economics of education over a period of years might wish to modify the author's statements by pointing out that the present crisis is only intensified by inflation. The problem of

adequate financial support has been with education for more years than those of the postwar period. Inflation has intensified the problem by increasing costs more rapidly than revenue could be raised.

After his analysis of the nature and effects of inflation, the author digresses, in Part II, from his central problem to consider what he terms a "vital economic and institutional issue," namely, "Supply and Demand for Teachers and Educated Men and Women." He argues that the law of the market place should not prevail in education, yet the fact is that it does to some extent. Too many able students drop out of schools and colleges for financial reasons, while too many mediocre students having adequate resources continue and graduate. Government funds should be used to correct inequalities between communities, to give allowances to poor children so that they can remain in school, and to give scholarships and allowances for talented but poor students to go to college. The gains to the nation would be many times the monetary outlay.

On the other hand, too many persons may be entering the professions or those occupations requiring higher education. The author feels, "There is a real danger that our society will yield more highly trained men and women than our economy can support in

highly trained jobs" (p. 67). It might be observed here that the author's view of higher education seems to be vocational. He gives little evidence of understanding the significance of the extension upward of general education through the junior college and of democratization of this level. He concludes his argument, however, by implying other values for college education than the merely vocational when he says: "It is necessary . . . to increase the facilities for nonprofessional higher education: stimulate the flow to colleges; but discourage excessive interest in the professions" (p. 71).

Finally, in Part II, Mr. Harris looks to the market effects of teachers' salaries on the flow of talent into teaching. He observes that up to the beginning of the war the economic position of teachers in relation to that of some other workers had improved. Since 1939, however, the situation has been reversed. The author shows statistically that gains in real income during this period were much less for the teacher than for the person employed in industry and for non-teaching workers in the field of education.

Most educators will find nothing new in the data presented. They will, however, find a significant discussion of the question, "How Much Should Teachers' Pay Rise?" Professor Harris says: "If

men and women of ability are to become teachers, they should share in the gains of progress" (pp. 74-75). While this statement appears simple, it implies a great deal. It means that the real income of teachers should increase in proportion to the increase in real national income. (This, of course, assumes that changes in purchasing power will be taken care of by fluctuation in the money salaries paid.) In 1947 national income was about 200 per cent above the pre-war level. Adjusting for changes in price and changes in population, real national income was about 70 per cent more than in 1939. If the teacher's position were to keep up with the short-run gains, he should be receiving 70 per cent more than in pre-war days in goods and services. This would require a considerable monetary adjustment above 70 per cent. One final point in this section should be commented on. Teacher income must remain in the same relative position to other professional incomes, or there will be a shift in the flow of new talent.

Educators should be cautioned, although the author neglects to do so, against the assumption that teacher salaries in the short run must reflect the gains discussed above. Public-school salaries depend so much on legislation that they cannot fluctuate upward or downward as rapidly as other incomes. Thus we must look to

longer-run trends in a discussion of teacher salaries. We may read into Harris' analysis what he probably implies: that, if talented young persons are to be attracted to teaching, they must be able to see in it an income which in the long run reflects the gains of economic progress, which will fluctuate reasonably with changes in purchasing power, and which will maintain its same relative position to the incomes of other professions. Boards of control, administrators, teachers, and citizens should understand some of these basic concepts which ought to be considered in teacher-salary discussions. The issue of salary increases for teachers involves more basic considerations in an expanding economy than merely adjustment to meet rising prices.

Coming back to his main argument, the author devotes the last three parts of the book to the available sources of income for education. Public spending for education is first considered. Harris shows statistically that government expenditures for education mounted rapidly from 1870 to 1940. In the 1930's the expenditures proved to be a real burden on many municipalities and states. Since the war, educational support has not risen in proportion to national income, and in 1947 only 1.5 per cent of the national income was spent on education. Local govern-

ments rely to a great extent on general property taxes as a source of income. In depressions the burden of the tax may become unbearable, and during rising prices it does not raise adequate revenue. Few, if any, states have tax systems which can provide adequately for education.

Harris' solution is federal aid. The federal tax system responds better to economic change, is less depressing on the economy, and is the most productive of revenue. Furthermore, the federal government must be concerned with equalization of educational opportunities from region to region, since lack of education in one part affects the entire country. Finally, it is the action or the lack of action on the part of the federal government which causes some of the difficulties met by local and state governments in raising revenue.

A second source of revenue for education is private expenditure. A relatively small amount of the total expenditures for elementary and secondary education comes from private sources. In the field of higher education, however, almost half of the support comes from private expenditures. Unfortunately the total amount allocated to education from the expenditures of the American people is not great in comparison with expenditures for consumption or with expenditures for luxury items. It is also a small

fraction of personal income. As incomes have risen, the amount set aside for education has not been what one might expect. It takes a long time to change spending patterns. Then, too, the increase in taxes and savings, coupled with the increased expenditures for semi-luxuries and luxuries, leaves little surplus income in the low-income groups and reduced surpluses in the higher-income groups.

The problems of both public and private expenditure for education are closely related to tax policy. Taxes provide the revenue for public spending on education, and they reduce the amount available for private spending on education. Professor Harris calls attention to the startling increase in the share of income demanded by taxes. A century ago the federal government took 1 per cent of national income in the form of taxes, while today it takes over 20 per cent. Although the rise in taxes has not crippled the economy, it has increased the burden of the parent in financing education and it has increased the burden of gifts on benefactors. Charitable gifts have held up remarkably well, but, in the opinion of the author, they would have been greater had the tax burden been less. The burden which rests on the middle-income group and the even heavier taxes on the high-income groups restrict the amounts available for gifts, as

well as the expenditures for fees and tuition. The author feels that the tax exemption of gifts for education does not offer sufficient inducement to bring forth the gifts necessary.

In his discussion of the tax exemption for gifts to education, he makes an unfortunate technical error. In showing how a man with a million-dollar income could make a gift of \$500,000 to education at a cost of only \$65,000, he completely neglects the provision of the income-tax law which limits tax exemption on charitable contributions to 15 per cent of taxable income. If Harris had made his computations more accurately, his potential donor would have had a considerable personal deficit instead of income of \$95,000. This point may appear trivial, yet it is indicative of a lack of care in preparation which one feels throughout the book.

Endowment income and annual gifts are necessary parts of the financial support of private institutions. Both are dependent on the forces which make private giving possible and probable. Factual data presented by Harris show that educational institutions are not receiving as large a share of the total gifts and bequests as they formerly did. Other well-organized campaigns for donations are cutting into the amounts that education might have received. Consequently

endowments (the base of endowment income) are not increasing at the desired rate, and annual gifts are too small.

Another adverse force in the financing of private education is the declining interest rate and its effect on the income from endowments. In an attempt to offset this decline, universities have invested to a greater degree in equities with an increased element of risk. The lack of endowment income becomes more acute as enrolments increase.

The financial position of institutions of higher learning has been considerably weakened by the various forces discussed. What is the solution to the problem of finance? Harris makes several suggestions. First, substantial economies may be possible, though there are many obstacles to the effecting of economies. Second, the case for government aid, which is discussed in detail, is strong. Third, a drastic change in the endowment policy would assist. Fourth, there is the possibility of improving the financial policies of the institutions.

The change in endowment policy should take two forms. First, emphasis should be placed on term gifts, in which the principal can be used up in a period of perhaps twenty years. Efforts should also be made to draw on the capital of available endowment funds when this is permissible legally. Sec-

ond, efforts should be increased to get large numbers of annual gifts. This latter point should have been developed more by the author. He showed in his data that the largest portion of contributions declared for tax purposes came from the low- and the middle-income groups. The base for small gifts is, therefore, large. Many small gifts might compensate for the lack of a few large donations.

A final source of new revenue for institutions of higher learning, both public and private, is increased tuition. A comparison is made of changes in tuition fees and faculty salaries with per capita national income, cost of living, and average hourly earnings in manufacturing. How tuition and salaries fare depend on the base year taken. In general, tuition fees have risen considerably, and faculty salaries are responding.

The capacity to pay higher tuition fees should be determined before further consideration is given to this source of revenue. Harris' evidence leads him to the conclusion that "most families do not have adequate income or liquid resources to finance the higher education of their children. . . . the colleges and professional schools are closed to all but less than one-quarter of the families in the country" (p. 193).

If, in spite of all the reasons against it, tuition increase is neces-

sary, it may have to come. The "sting of higher tuition fees" may be reduced, according to Harris, by such devices as a multi-price system. Under such a system tuition might be adjusted on the basis of promise and ability to pay. The proposal is really a form of extended partial scholarships. Another possibility is greater recourse to credit. If education is considered a long-run investment, loans to finance it are quite justifiable.

An evaluation of Professor Harris' book is difficult. It is excellent in that it enumerates many of the issues facing education. In certain parts, the analysis is brilliant. On the other hand, the reader cannot ward off the impression that here is a book literally thrown together from the notes of a capable economist. It does not give evidence of careful workmanship or of thorough grasp of the trends and problems of modern education. The author's background, admitted advisers, and specific references indicate a limited educational horizon.

The book should be widely read, with its limitations recognized, in the hope that it may encourage the further study of the economics of education. There is need for painstaking research, critical analysis, and accurate presentation in this very important aspect of public policy.

WILLIAM H. CONLEY

Selected References

DANIEL ALBRIGHT

JOBE, E. R. "Organization of Higher Education, with Particular Reference to State-wide Planning," *Current Problems in Higher Education*, pp. 202-10. Edited by Ralph W. McDonald. Official Group Reports of the National Conference on Higher Education Held at Chicago, Illinois, March 31—April 3, 1947. Washington: Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association, 1947.

The growth of higher education and the resulting complexity of relations in and between colleges have made current administrative problems particularly acute. A more refined type of organization is necessary, for which Jobe gives several general suggestions.

For the handling of internal problems, the proposed administrative setup resembles a pyramid; the "span of control" in each higher echelon decreases until the president receives direct reports from no more than five to eight persons. Discontent encountered may be minimized by care in the selection of administrative assistants and by fostering a spirit of collaboration. Four divisions are suggested: instruction, business and finance, student personnel, and public relations. Public relations will co-ordinate all phases of school activity and planning, so that contact with the outside world may be maintained and public support, including fund-raising, may be made effective.

Postwar experience has demonstrated the usefulness of the public junior college, as mass higher education begins to be a reality. The need to provide terminal and general education, as well as pre-professional preparation, economically and near the students' homes supports the trend toward extending formal schooling through Grade XIV. This plan,

however, raises a problem in vertical articulation. The impracticability of constructing pre-professional curriculums that will fit the requirements of widely diverse senior colleges and professional schools has resulted in many difficulties and disappointments for junior-college students. Upper-level institutions must, therefore, accept at least a part of the responsibility for solution of this problem and, in solving it, must respect the objectives peculiar to junior colleges and the local needs which junior colleges primarily serve. Junior colleges must be planned on a state-wide basis, taking into consideration not only population and local finances and the condition of local public schools but also the location of public and private senior colleges.

Although frequently supported by individual states, technical and professional schools tend to become regional in scope. Hence co-operative planning is essential, some examples of which already exist. Intelligent planning of this kind creates a need for a national agency of information, such as the United States Office of Education, which should have cabinet rank. Corresponding confusion in the dealings of federal and national agencies with institutions within the states arises from the absence of state-wide organizations responsible for planning. Such organizations should also co-ordinate state-supported activities, defining the sphere and function of universities, state colleges, and junior colleges, and watchfully preventing the encroachment of senior institutions on the junior-college functions of secondary education, terminal curriculums, and adult training, in geographical areas served by the latter.

No influence is more powerful than that of the accrediting agencies, but their number and lack of integration may divide institutions and dissipate their usefulness. Lists of approved accrediting agencies should be established on a national scale. The splendid

work of the regional agencies should be extended to graduate departments, because of the influence that these exert on undergraduate patterns. Thus the educational program in individual institutions could be planned in its totality.

NEWCOMER, JAMES W. "The High School Is Responsible for the Junior College," *School Review*, LVI (May, 1948), 270-74.

Higher education is growing at the present time because it is wanted and needed. Yet colleges should not be established to satisfy a vague desire of high-school graduates "to be educated" but to have "purposive needs satisfied." Accordingly, secondary-school educators, who influence students' decisions on continuing higher education, "should be philosophically certain about what a college should offer, in order that their influence will be directed toward right ends and in order that their graduates . . . will influence what is offered in the colleges by the nature of their demands."

The junior college is a fixture in the American scene, but its supporters are still too widely diverse in proposing objectives and methods for it to operate at its best. Actually, Newcomer feels, the junior college is a part of the larger picture of higher education, and he quotes from a speech made by James B. Conant on these university functions: fostering and protecting scholarship, educating leading citizens, and training for the professions. "By just so much as the junior college contributes to those major educational ends, it may measure the worthiness of its contribution as an institution of higher learning," although other worthy objectives, as well as more compelling considerations, may govern in individual cases.

The high-school graduate is confronted with a bewildering variety of junior-college offerings—terminal, preparatory, and various mixtures. But criteria for judging junior colleges must be what students are admitted and what students are graduated. The junior college that admits graduates who would not meet four-year college standards must offer (1) an inferior brand of education on a lower

level, (2) a superficial approximation of the first two years of a four-year liberal arts curriculum, or (3) purely technical or vocational training. The first type "perhaps forfeits its right to be called a college." It promises more than it can produce and deceives both its students and its graduates. The second, a popularization of liberal education, is compared to the *Reader's Digest* in relation to scholarly magazines. The third has value exactly for what it is and should be called not "junior college," but, more accurately and honestly, "trade school" or "business school."

Of course the role of the junior college is not necessarily that of the university. Its curriculum may provide "the absolute equivalent, academically, of the first two years of study leading to the Bachelor's degree" or may provide training which enables students to "conclude their formal education" and "step out into active participation in the nonacademic world." In the latter case, the junior college "forfeits its claim to any other function of the universities than that of developing leading, or at least useful, citizens," and "its contribution to the developing of scholarship and the training of professional men has been cut off."

The prevailing public confusion about higher education must be combated by educators in universities and secondary schools. High-school people must steer their less capable students to junior colleges and protect students who are capable of scholarship and professional training "from being lost in the potpourri of two-year 'higher schools' situated at the dead end of an educational byroad considerably removed from the highway of university education." It is the task of the secondary school to see to it that students "want the right thing and that the junior colleges . . . [consequently] function correctly in being of the greatest service."

WHITE, ROBERT I. "Toward an Understanding of the 6-4-4 Plan," *School and Society*, LXVII (February 14, 1948), 113-16.

This article takes up in order the questions raised by Professor Frederick E. Bolton in

his article, "Some Limitations of the 6-4-4 Plan of School Organization" (*School and Society*, LXV [June 7, 1947], 417-20. Summarized in *Junior College Journal*, XVIII [October, 1947]). The objections are, in general, founded on a concept of the junior college as a preparatory institution, but friends of the movement agree with its foes in remarking the stultifying effect of such emphasis. The needs of 70-80 per cent of the prospective junior-college population are not for preparatory work, and actual experience has shown that the ironclad separation of junior-college education from the rest of secondary education does not meet these needs.

In reply to the specific accusation that the 6-4-4 plan merely echoes the traditional European pattern, White shows that it grows rather from the American common-school ideal; for the traditional European pattern never was one of popularized education.

Modern research amply demonstrates that the 6-4-4 plan accords with the nature of adolescence better than does the 8-4 plan, which is merely a tradition, and not the outgrowth of experimentation and thinking that Professor Bolton called it.

Participation in extra-curriculum activities in senior college is hampered by attendance at any junior college. On the other hand, the student of junior-college age has greater opportunities for such participation in the 6-4-4 system than in either the traditional college or the separate junior college.

Similarly, the argument that the immaturity of eleventh- and twelfth-grade students unbalances the four-year junior college would be even sounder if used against the traditional college, where the comparative immaturity of Freshmen and Sophomores is the source of the widespread tendency to separate senior colleges into upper and lower divisions. The evidence indicates that the grouping of Grades XI-XIV, far from producing a preponderance of juveniles, is

actually more homogeneous than that of Grades IX-XII.

The legislative obstacle cited as a limitation is actually operative in only ten states; twenty-nine states have local public junior colleges, legally maintained, while the remainder have branch or regional types.

Professor Bolton's final point—the advantages of regional organization, in which junior colleges are maintained as branches of higher institutions—is shown to solve none of the problems of articulation, continuous guidance, economy, and extra-curriculum activities. Furthermore, such organization is less democratic, according to objective studies of the proportions of high-school graduates who actually enrol in the various types.

Dean White refers briefly to a portion of the large body of other evidence favoring the 6-4-4 plan. The junior college having an enrolment of fewer than 700-1,000 must do without many specialized facilities, laboratories, shops, etc., which it could afford if it were integrated and sharing facilities with the high school or with Grades XI and XII; for studies of existing conditions prove that the number of such facilities varies directly with the "degree of association." Obviously the same line of logic would apply to guidance programs, extra-curriculum activities, and especially to faculties.

Curricular articulation is impossible where the junior college and high school operate independently, since both are trying to achieve the same specialized ends. Needless repetition and the neglect of general education result. The 6-4-4 plan, on the other hand, "starts the eleventh-grade student on an enriched and ordered program which is challenging, nonrepetitious, and suited to his developing activity."

The abundant evidence from existing four-year junior colleges and associations has been confirmed by polls of administrators in all situations, a clear majority of whom favor the 6-4-4 plan—this is the evidence of experience and judgment.

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